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Temporal development of job attitudes during the first two years on the job: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies

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Abstract

Many longitudinal studies on job attitudes have been performed during the period of socialization, which arguably covers the first two years on the job. In this chapter, we evaluate the temporal development of organizational commitment during socialization by performing a meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. This allows us to evaluate whether job attitudes grow, decline, or remain stable during this sensitive, novice period. Additionally, it allows us to evaluate *when* such purported change sets in and whether it stabilizes. Although our results are not without limitations due to researchers' inconsistent use of time intervals, the results reveal significantly *declining* trajectories between 3-12 months after entry and relatively low heterogeneity between studies in that period. Between 0-3 and 12-24 months, we found no significantly declining trajectories and higher heterogeneity between studies. The results underline the precariousness and dynamism of the person-organization relationship during socialization.

Key words : *Organizational Commitment, Temporal approach, Dynamic Systems, Newcomer Socialization,*

INTRODUCTION

Job attitudes are the most classic and influential phenomena of interest in the history of organizational psychology (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012, p. 342) and seen as the "most useful pieces of information an organization can have about its employees" (Roznowski & Hulin, 1992, p. 320). Indeed, in their 2012 review of the job attitudes literature, Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller noted that the PsycINFO database at that time contained 33,348 records referring to "job attitudes," "work attitudes," "job satisfaction," or "organizational commitment." The construct of organizational commitment has been shown to relate to important employee and organizational outcomes, such as enhanced employee health and wellbeing, enhanced organizational citizenship behaviors, and reduced turnover intention (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Given their central role in employee and organizational performance and well-being, the study of job attitudes, in fact, reveals a remarkable success story in the translation of academic knowledge to the world of management practise, because practitioners have as a result of this massive academic interest come to realize that happy and committed employees are a major source of competitive advantage (e.g., Beer, 2009).

Formally defined, job attitudes are "evaluations that express one's feelings toward, beliefs about, and attachment to one's job" (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012, p. 344). Within the domain of job attitudes, job satisfaction and organizational commitment are the most well-established constructs. *Job satisfaction* (JS) has generally emphasized individual's beliefs and feelings about the job, defined as "an evaluative state that expresses contentment with and positive feelings about one's job" (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012: 343), while *organizational commitment* (OC) has, in the past decades of research been emphasizing individual's degree of attachment (or "bond"), being defined as *"a volitional psychological bond reflecting dedication to and responsibility for a particular target*" (Klein, Molloy, &

Brinsfield, 2012, p. 137). "The organization" is meant here as the target object to be committed to. While these conceptual differences exist, empirically organizational commitment and job satisfaction have been harder to distinguish, showing a corrected correlation of around .60 across studies (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006).

In accordance with the aim of this edited book, in this chapter we will evaluate the progression that this literature has made within Kozlowski's (2009) "*new frontier*," namely, research aimed at "advancing theories that address the dynamics of how important phenomena emerge, evolve, and change over time" (p. 3). To manage scope within the massive literature on job attitudes, we will zoom in exclusively on the episode of socialization (i.e., newcomer onboarding), which roughly covers the first two years on the job. Because the study of socialization has taken a prominent place in the job attitudes literature, this set of studies also functions as a way to evaluate the progress of the literature regarding "new frontier" of temporal understanding. To this end, we briefly review organizational commitment as a construct, how the literature is shifting towards a dynamic view with the transition through longitudinal approaches towards temporal research, use empirical data to illustrate some important caveats in this transition, and close with some thoughts on where the research on organizational commitment is heading.

Academic interest in the dynamism of job attitudes over the past decades

The study of job attitudes has found fruitful application in a wide range of organizational contexts. For instance, originating in the 1950's, organizational commitment was initially studied in more neutral organizational contexts with the aim of explaining consistency in behaviour (Becker, 1960). Over the decades that followed, literature on organizational commitment has proliferated into research on different contexts in which organizational commitment develops, such as during organizational change or socialization of organizational

newcomers. After the first meta-analysis on organizational commitment, scholars studying the topic soon came to realise that it could serve as a summary index of work-experiences and as a proximal predictor of positive work behaviour (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Steel & Ovalle, 1984). This realisation fuelled the popularity of the constructs and lead to its proliferation in a wider variety of contexts. One example is the usefulness of job attitudes to explain the impact of organizational change (e.g., layoffs) on employee behaviour and health (e.g., Parker, Chmiel, & Wall, 1997).

As with most of the early research on organizational phenomena, a lot of the initial empirical work has been cross-sectional in nature. The popularity of job attitude constructs has led to a vast amount of studies examining the relationships between job attitudes and a wide range of antecedents and outcomes. These important insights have been compiled in several meta-analyses on the topic (e.g., Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Steel & Ovalle, 1984). As time passed, more longitudinal research designs started to appear in the organizational commitment literature. Initially these were mainly studies focusing on neutral contexts attempting to establish directionality in substantive relationships with behaviours of interest (e.g., "citizenship" behaviour; Bateman & Organ, 1993). So, although these studies were longitudinal, there was little attention for temporal development over the consecutive time moments. However, somewhat in parallel, a growing interest in the temporal development of organizational commitment started to arise. Studies by for example Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) and Van Maanen (1975) where among the first to measure organizational commitment at multiple time points in one study, thereby providing new insight into sample-average change of organizational commitment over time. Van Maanen's (1975) study was insightful in this regard, because sample-average shifts in attitudes revealed that newcomers police cadets initially entered their organization with much vigor and

enthusiasm, then quickly learnt to "make no waves" and adjusted to organizational culture by *lowering* their attitudes.

In more recent work on organizational commitment, research attention has shifted towards a temporal research approach. The temporal approach is fundamentally different from the variance-based approach that is often used in longitudinal research. The temporal research approach aims to provide insight into the 'natural course' of organizational commitment and thus focusses on understanding how it develops as a process. This is in sharp contrast to the variance based longitudinal approach, which tries to establish linear relationships (covariance) between organizational commitment scores at a first time point and a later time point, often with weeks or months between measurements. In contrast, the temporal approach is often characterised by more and denser measurement intervals, which also allows for a person-centred approach (where one looks at trajectory 'types') rather than a variable centred approach. An example of the temporal approach is the study by Solinger, van Olffen, Roe, and Hofmans (2013), who showed that organizational commitment during newcomer socialization can develop through five scenarios: Honeymoon-hangover (high start, but ending moderate), learning-to-love (low start, but ending high), High Match (high start and remaining high), Low Match (low start and remaining low), and Moderate match (Fairly high start and then hovering around the mid-range of the scale). Consequently, the temporal research approach has the potential to provide new insight into *how* organizational commitment develops, changes and potentially terminates over time, which brings about comparatively more actionable knowledge, such as knowledge about *when* to intervene (Langley, Smallman, Tsoukas, & van de Ven, 2013). The Solinger et al. (2013) study, for instance, showed that a euphoric start upon entering a job, is not necessarily sustained over time; one may still enter a decline scenario after a few months (Honeymoon-Hangover), quickly settle at moderate levels afterwards (Moderate Match), or indeed remain high (High Match). Early intervention (within the first 10 weeks) can

make a great difference in this case. Since then, another primary study replicated the presence of both growing and declining scenarios of onboarding in a Brazilian government agency (Maia, Bastos, & Solinger, 2016).

The present study

Although recent empirical evidence suggests that there are multiple possible onboarding scenarios (Maia, Bastos, & Solinger, 2013; Solinger, et al., 2013), the honeymoon-hangover effect is still relatively dominant in the newcomer socialization literature, leading to the urban legend that this is the most prevalent pattern (e.g., Boswell et al., 2005, 2009; Firth et al., 2014; Judge & Kammeyer-mueller, 2012; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Maia et al., 2016; Solinger et al., 2013). With only primary studies available, however, we do not yet know how empirically prevalent such scenarios are across studies and settings. Thus, the question remains: *What dynamic trend do we see in longitudinal studies of job attitudes across the first 48 months of work?* To answer this question, we will need to perform a meta-analysis of the newcomer socialization literature, to examine whether the typical trajectory is characterised by a brief period of euphoria about the new job, followed by disenchantment and a 'reality shock' (Louis, 1980), which suggests a temporal pattern of a rise in a newcomers' job attitudes briefly after entry, followed by a sustained decline: the honeymoon-hangover effect (Boswell, Boudreau, & Tichy, 2005).

In this review, we thus seek whether the existing body of longitudinal studies on job attitudes during socialization can be harnessed to answer these questions. If the honeymoon-hangover effect is empirically as prevalent as is assumed in the literature, then *mean-level* job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) should show a brief increase during the newcomers' first months on the job, followed by a phase of decline. If sufficiently prevalent, such a trajectory should be identifiable in a meta-analysis of mean-level changes

captured in longitudinal studies. While it may seem awkward to try and study individual-level change through mean-level shifts, this is frankly the only way we can study change in the present set of longitudinal studies. Mean-level change refers to whether a sample of individuals increases or decreases in their average score on a construct (Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, 2006). Specifically, we are interested in normative change[1], which resembles the change in the majority of people during a given time period (Roberts et al., 2006). Normative changes are believed to emerge from a historical process shared by the population (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Roberts et al., 2006), which in our case would be organizational entry. Although we focus on the group level by assessing mean-level change, as the notion of normative change illustrates, we can make an inference about the individual level change, namely what the most prevalent individual level change pattern is. After all, there can be no mean-level change without any individual-level change[2]. The meta-analysis of mean-level change in this study illustrates the direction of change for the *majority* of the population during the time frames assessed. As such, it is acknowledged that subgroups of the population might change in another direction (e.g., Solinger et al., 2013; Maia et al., 2016), thereby also affecting the mean-level of change. Nonetheless, the direction of change by the majority of people is captured in the trend that is resembled by mean-level change (Roberts et al., 2006). Thereby, we aimed to uncover the 'natural course' of mean-level job attitudes during newcomer socialization.

METHODS

Study Coding

The data for the meta-analysis were obtained through an extensive search for relevant studies in various online databases. Articles were included on the basis of five criteria. First, we

[1] With 'normative change' we do not refer to changes in social norms, but rather to prevalence of change (i.e., *the most* prevalent change trajectory) in the population.

[2] It should be acknowledged here that mean-level change does not necessarily capture the trajectory of a single individual; it represents a averaged trajectory across a number of individuals with similar (but not identical) trajectories. It remains possible that there are alternative profiles that are not well covered by this mean profile.

screened on context, meaning that there needed to be a tractable moment when the employee started his/her new job. The start of the job functions as an anchor, a T0 for the analysis. Anchoring is extremely important in temporal research, to ensure comparability of the experiences and the intelligibility of the trajectories (van Olffen, Solinger, & Roe, 2016). Second, articles needed to have measured job attitudes in the form of either or both organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Other job attitudes were excluded. Third, articles needed to have measured the included job attitudes longitudinally. Fourth, both the mean scores (i.e., sample aggregates) and corresponding standard deviations needed to be reported, both for the constructs of interest and each measurement wave. The fifth and final criterion was that the measurement waves of enough different studies had to align, such that the difference scores for a given time period could be meta-analysed from at least four unique samples, per time period for the meta-analysis. This meant that twelve studies were excluded, even though they met all the other criteria, simply because there were not sufficient other studies that covered the same time interval. A more detailed overview of our search process is provided in Figure 1. Based on the above outlined criteria we included 23 studies, with 26 unique samples, and 44 unique effect sizes (i.e., mean-difference scores), covering the following time intervals: 0 – 3 months, 3 – 6 months, 0 – 6 months, 6 – 12 months, 0 – 12 months, and 12 – 24 months. The individual study codings and meta-analysed effect sizes per time period and related statistics are presented in Table 1.

Insert Figure 1 and Table 1 about here

Analytical approach

Important to repeat is that we are meta analysing mean-level change scores in job attitudes per time interval, which is distinct from the use of meta-analysis to evaluate correlations between two variables. The mean-level change score (i.e. *d* score) calculation method used in this meta-analysis has been used in previous studies (Roberts et al., 2006) and

is based on the methodological work by Morris and Deshon (2002). Specifically, the *d* score (i.e. the effect size per sample) between the pre- and post-mean of the same sample is calculated by subtracting the pre-mean from the post-mean and standardizing this by dividing it by the pre-standard deviation (Morris & DeShon, 2002: p. 111 - eq. 13). We did not use the pooled standard deviation (e.g. SD_{pre} and SD_{post}), because the standard deviations for longitudinal change are not independent (Morris & DeShon, 2002). We used the reported α-reliability score of the scale to calculate a mean difference score that corrects for measurement error, δ. The calculation of the δ is the same as that of the *d* score, except that the pre-standard deviation is multiplied by the square root of the α-reliability score, before it is used to divide the pre- and post-mean difference (cf., Schmidt & Hunter, 2004). To calculate the sampling variance, we used the raw single-group pretest-posttest raw score equation of Morris and DeShon (2002: p117). This equation corrects the raw δ scores for study design, sample size (i.e. of post-test measure), and the test-retest coefficient (i.e. the correlation coefficient between the pre-test and the post-test). Consequently, samples with a large sample size and high reliability will have a lower sampling variance (Morris & DeShon, 2002).

The meta-analysis was conducted with the Comprehensive Meta-Analysis software. We meta-analysed the difference scores for each time interval (i.e., 0 – 3, 3 – 6, 6 – 12, 0 – 12, and 12 – 24 months) to estimate the population difference in mean scores (i.e., effect sizes) for each interval. The random effects model was used to estimate all the effect sizes and the variances (heterogeneity) in the effect size distribution. To assess the presence of publication bias, we used Egger's regression intercept (Egger, Smith, Schneider, & Minder, 1997) and Duval and Tweedie's (2000) trim and fill approach, which are reported in addition to the results of the meta-analyses.

RESULTS

After analysing our data, we encountered three distinct time slots that could plausibly be identified as empirically distinct: the first 3 months after entry, 3-12 months after entry, and 12-24 months after entry. This distinction seems consistent with multiple alternative phase models of socialization, including the one by Feldman (1981): anticipatory socialization (no data on this phase prior to organizational entry), encounter (our first three months), change and adjustment (our 3-12 month period), and Performance as an insider (12-24 months). It would also fit with, more specifically, with different phases of the Honeymoon-Hangover process (Boswell et al., 2009), namely Honeymoon (first 3 months after entry), Hangover (3-12 months after entry), and adjustment/integration (12-24 months after entry) where employees are expected to function more fully as organizational "insiders" (see also Feldman, 1981; Louis, 1980). As for the Encounter/Honeymoon period (first 3 months), the results do not show a significant change in job attitudes during the first three months ($\bar{\delta}$ = -.10;95% CI = [-.66, .46]), and no overall change combined with rather high heterogeneity during the first three months. Although the results did not show a significant increase in job attitudes (consistent with a Honeymoon period), we did not find an immediate decline in job attitudes shortly after entry either. Moreover, the sampling variance is relatively high (95% CI = [-.66, .44]) in addition to the remarkably high heterogeneity during this period (T^2 = .55, I^2 = 99.13), which seems to confirm our expectation that the first three months are a dynamic period of the socialization process: anything goes in this phase! See Table 2 for an overview of the analyses.

As for the Adjustment/Hangover period (3-12 months), the logic is that an initial honeymoon phase is followed by a *sharp decline* in newcomers' job attitudes (i.e. hangover effect). We coded for four different time intervals that cover the period of three to 12 months because no prior theory makes exact predictions about the duration of the hangover effect. The results show a significant decrease in newcomer job attitudes during all four different time

intervals that cover this period (3 – 6 months: $\bar{\delta}$ = -.17, CI = [-.33 / -.01]; 0 – 6 months: $\bar{\delta}$ = -.48, CI = [-.81/-.15]; 6 – 12 months: $\bar{\delta}$ = -.11, CI = [-.16 / -.06]; 0 – 12 months: $\bar{\delta}$ = -.19, CI = [-.36 / -.03]). Important to note is especially the heterogeneity during the three to six month period is relatively *low* (T2 = .19, I2 = 83.29) compared to the majority of other time-periods assessed in this study, suggesting that there is a decline in job attitudes in most samples during the three to six month period. As can be seen in Table 2, the majority of effect sizes included in these four time waves are negative and significant. There are a few positive effect sizes indicating an increase in mean-level job attitudes over the assessed time period (k = 3) and only one of these is significant (0 – 12 months: Chao, et al., (1994); $\bar{\delta}$ =.41, CI = [.19, .62]). Furthermore, there are two effect sizes that indicate no mean-level change in job attitudes. Taken together, these results provide convincing support for the presence of a prevalent mean-level decline in job attitudes.

As for the phase of Performance/Integration (12-24 months), the results show mixed support for our third hypothesis, which predicted that patterns of temporal change in job attitudes would stabilize (i.e. no significant change) following the hangover period, signalling the end of socialization. We did not find a significant change in newcomers' job attitudes during the 12 to 24 months time period ($\bar{\delta}$ = -.17; 95% CI = [-.75, .41]). However, the sample size is relatively small for the 12-24 months time interval, so these results should be interpreted with the appropriate caution. Moreover, the heterogeneity is moderately high (T2 = .33, I2 = 95.72) suggesting dynamism in this period across studies, which makes that the lack of significant change is not overly convincing support for stabilization.

Insert Table 2 about here

DISCUSSION

In this empirical study we meta-analysed *mean-level* temporal change in organizational commitment and job satisfaction to systematically assess the prevalence of development trajectories of newcomers' job attitudes during the socialization period. Our results did not provide unequivocal support for the honeymoon-hangover effect to be the most prevalent trajectory of newcomers' job attitudes. That is, we found strong support for declining trajectories between 3-12 months on the job, strongly supporting the notion of a Hangover period. In the first three months of Encounter (Feldman, 1981), however, we did not find support for a significant *rise* in commitment that would be associated with a Honeymoon; the absence of any significant mean-level change, combined with high heterogeneity between studies suggests that this is a most unpredictable period and many types of trajectories at the individual (and mean-) level are possible. Between 12-24 months job attitudes seem to stabilize (i.e. no significant mean-level change), although there remained a large degree of heterogeneity between our set of studies. Thus, for some individuals or units job attitude levels stabilized while for others they continued to be dynamic. What is evident from our findings is that the socialization period is highly precarious and dynamic and stability cannot be assumed in any of the phases in the first two years of work. Figure 2 shows a summary of our intuitions.

Insert Figure 2 about here

Besides providing insight into "normative change", meaning the general trajectory of job attitudes during newcomer socialization, the results of this study implicate three important considerations for future dynamic research on job attitudes. First, the high heterogeneity in the first three months of newcomer socialization suggest that the stage of Encounter is a *dynamic* period. This dynamism indicates that there are large differences between samples in how

socialization unfolds over time, which raises the question where those differences originate from. A possible explanation is that these differences can (in part) be the result of contextual factors. For example, a moderator analysis (not reported here for space) showed that not having a newcomer orientation programme or introduction training at the start of the socialization period (k = 21) caused a decline in job attitudes ($\bar{r}$ = -.21), but that having a training (k = 5) could potentially be associated with an absence of decline ($\bar{r}$ = .10). However, such an explanation is by no means exhaustive. As outlined in more detail in other chapters of this book, the person-centred approach provides more detailed insight in the temporal development of organizational commitment, compared to the variable-centred approach. It seems logical to assume that not every person follows the same average onboarding trajectory, but at the same time it is also likely to expect limited heterogeneity, meaning that there is a limited set of onboarding trajectories as suggested by Solinger and colleagues (2013).

Second, despite finding significant decline during newcomer socialization as we predicted in hypothesis two, another important consideration is the *rate of decline* during newcomer socialization. Since we did not know the duration of the different phases *a priori*, we explored multiple time periods covering different lengths (i.e., 3-6 months, 0-6 months, 6-12 months, and 0-12 months). Although we did find an overall pattern of decline during the different time periods assessed in this study, the results do however not converge to the exact same *rate of decline* in job attitudes. If we were to assume a linear decline during the four different time periods assessed, we can calculate the average decline per month for each period by dividing the total effect size for that period by the number of months that that periods covers. Doing so, we find that their average decline per month is somewhat different (*average monthly decline:* 3 – 6 months: $\bar{\bar{\delta}}$ = -.06 ; 0 – 6 months: $\bar{\bar{\delta}}$ = -.08 ; 6 – 12 months: $\bar{\bar{\delta}}$ = -.02 ; 0 – 12 months: $\bar{\bar{\delta}}$ = -.02). Remarkable here is that the decline per month is much stronger in the time periods up to six months, and that the average decline per month is much weaker in the time

periods that cover six to 12 months on the job. It seems therefore, that the sharpest decline in job attitude change can be expected in the *first 6 month* of the job. These results suggest that there is some kind of newcomer 'reality shock' (Louis, 1980) somewhere between the third and the sixth month with a sharp decline in job attitudes right after the initial stage of Encounter.

Note that the studies using job satisfaction and organizational commitment as constructs of interest, is roughly equal (see Table 1). We are constrained by our sample size and cannot rigorously test for a moderation effect of attitude type (satisfaction vs commitment) on change scores. Our hunch is that such effects are potentially there: not in absolute terms (both JS and OC show decline in primary studies), but more in relative terms, as satisfaction is typically a bit less affected by hangovers than commitment is. The fact that we generalize across two conceptually distinct types of attitude can be considered a limitation of our study.

Suggestions for future of job attitudes / newcomer socialization research

***When* to measure during the period of socialization**. We have started this chapter with outlining the massive size of the literature on job attitudes. Yet, despite its size and popularity since the 1950s, focused interest in the temporal development is still relatively recent. What scholars did focus on more and more in the past decades, is the use of longitudinal study designs. In this chapter we have quantitatively reviewed longitudinal studies on job attitudes on socialization. What became evident during our analyses, is that current theory on job attitudes and organizational socialization is unclear regarding the duration of temporal fluctuations. For instance, theory is silent about the duration of Honeymoon or Hangover phases (but see Louis, 1980; Solinger et al., 2013). There exists serious ambiguity in the newcomer socialization literature and organizational commitment literature in general about *when* to measure (e.g., Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Glomb, & Ahlburg, 2005; Meyer & Allen, 1988). Ashforth and Saks (1996) even literally mentioned in their paper

that their "choice of measurement points was admittedly arbitrary" (p. 159). Although this was a justifiable reasoning back then, the literature has progressed over two decades since then and is moving to a new, dynamic *frontier* (Kozlowski, 2009). The ambiguity in researchers' choices of measurement points became painfully evident in selecting the papers to be included in our meta-analysis of mean-level change. We had to drop twelve papers from our analysis, in line with selection criterion five (i.e., at least four primary studies using the same time interval). Although dropping these studies was necessary to safeguard the rigor of our study, it does illustrate that a consensus on the number and density of (i.e. distance between) measurement waves is important to advance our understanding of the dynamics of organizational commitment.

Based on our screening and analysis of the literature on organizational commitment during newcomer socialization, we make the following suggestions on measurement number and density for future research. Our results illustrate that the first few months (approximately 3 months) are the most unpredictably in terms of dynamics, which warrants high-density repeated measurement during this phase (cf., Solinger et al., 2013; van Olffen, Solinger, & Roe, 2016). Accordingly, we suggest an interval of a week during the honeymoon period (approximately first-three months). Next, our results show a convincing decline in the consecutive period (i.e. the hangover period) of three to 12 months on the job. Ideally, one would want to measure with one-week intervals here as well, but if this is not feasible, intervals of one month should suffice. Since job attitude change variability only seems to increase again beyond 12 months, we do not recommend time intervals longer than one month at any point. After all, change remains the only constant.

Widening the scope to multiple targets of satisfaction and commitment. A related point of attention, besides the study of time and temporal development, is the need for more systematic attention to the notion of the system in which the objects of satisfaction and

commitment are embedded. In a fast-paced and changing world, the organization is no longer always the most relevant target of investigation for job attitude researchers (Van Rossenberg et al., 2018). While for job satisfaction it is relatively more common to evaluate various targets of satisfaction simultaneously (e.g., challenge, pay, colleagues, supervisor, opportunities for advancement, organization as a whole), for organizational commitment the vast majority of studies is focused on the organization as a target object. Theory and data focusing on change in commitment to multiple targets could, and should, provide even further detail about when to measure, and what to measure over time, how often, and for how long.

Conclusion

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment continue to be highly useful proxies for understanding the effort that individuals are willing to expend in their work, their level of wellbeing working, and whether they are planning to continue doing so. What our chapter has shown is that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are both highly *dynamic* constructs, especially during the period of socialization. We found convincing evidence for declining attitudes between the third and 12th month after job entry. Being a newcomer is therefore a highly precarious state and both employees and managers would do well by realizing such dynamism is bound to happen. "Learning the ropes" through problem-focused coping is something an employee could do. However, onboarding is not only the task of the individual employee; making sure that incoming employees retain their psychological capital to actually contribute and add value to the organization is at least as important. While hangovers are empirically prevalent, they are not inevitable. Making sure employees feel supported and included will be helpful. Realistic job previews are also best practices, just as offering sufficient inducements from the part of the organization, such as continued guidance, training, and leader support.

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Figure 1.

Flow diagram of sample collection

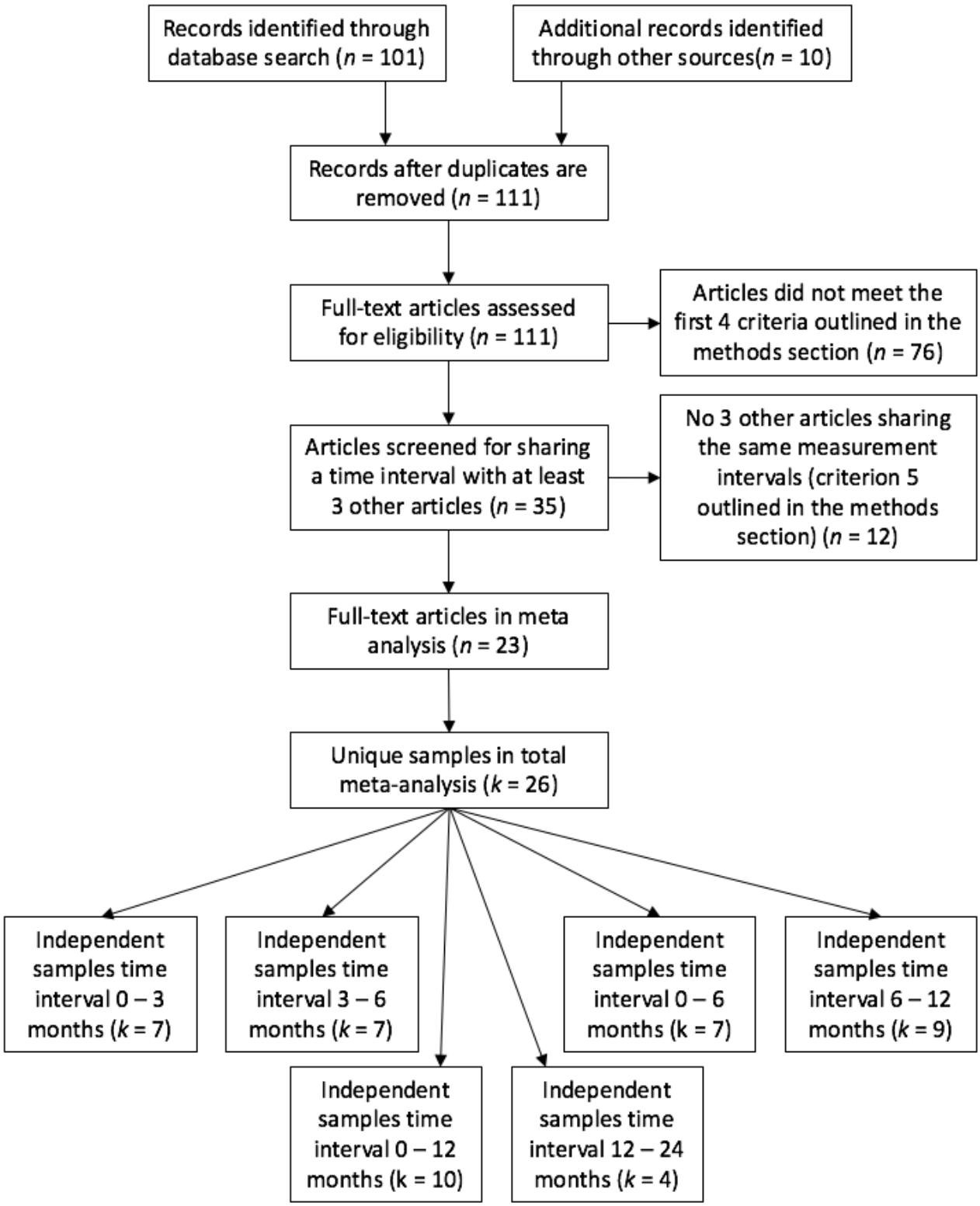

Figure 2

Hypothesised Nonlinear Change in Mean-Level Job Attitudes During Newcomer Socialization

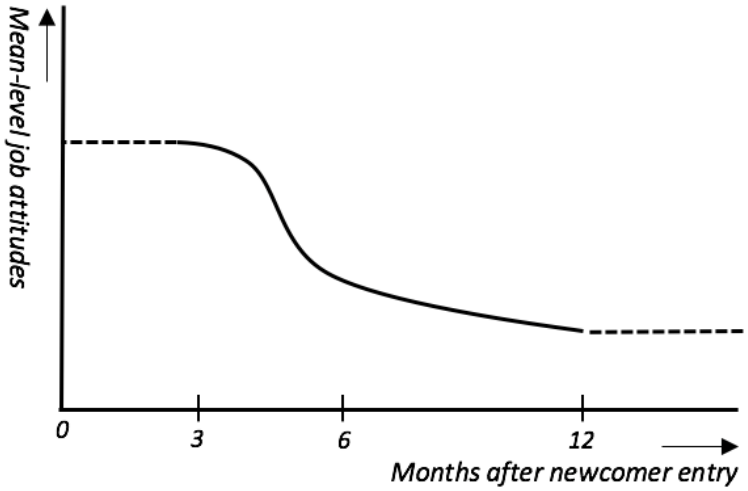

TABLE 1
Source Table of Effects

	Authors	OC/ JS/&	*N*	*d*	*δ*	[*LL, UL*]	JS	SS	Train.	Industry type	Country	Gender	Age
0 - 3 Months													
1	Lee et al, 1992	OC	385	-0,69	-0,72	[-.826, -.614]			1	Army	US		
2	Maanen, 1975	OC	78	-1,00	-1,08	[-1.352, -.808]			1	Law Enforcement	US		24.0
3	Pierce & Dunham, 1987	OC	73	-0,53	-0,58	[-.817, -.343]			0	Healthcare			
4	Vandenberg & Self, 1993	OC	281	-0,79	-0,85	[-.980, -.720]			0	Finance	US	25,0%	28.0
5	Solinger et al, 2013	OC	37	1,41	1,63	[1.127, 2.133]			0	Academia	NLD	46,0%	29.0
6	Sluss et al 2012 - Sample 1	OC	186	0,61	0,65	[.472, .828]			1	Telemarketing	US	44,0%	29.0
7	Sluss et al 2012 - Sample 2	OC	1279	0,34	0,37	[.314, .426]			1	Army	US	69,0%	22.0
			2319										
3 - 6 Months													
1	Bosswell, 2009	JS	99	-0,26	-0,28	[-.458, -.102]		81.40	0	Public service	US	65,0%	39.0
2	Brett et al, 1990 - Sample 1	OC	39	-0,04	-0,05	[-.300, .200]		56.70	0	Consumer products	US	54,0%	27.0
3	De Vos & Freese, 2011	OC	365	0,00	0,00	[-.103, .103]			0	Diverse	Belgium	68,0%	27.2
4	De Vos et al, 2003	JS	333	-0,07	-0,08	[-.181, .021]	76.00	80.00	0	Diverse	Belgium	65,0%	27.0
5	Maanen, 1975	OC	66	0,11	0,12	[-.108, .348]			1	Law Enforcement	US		24.0
6	Vandenberg & Self, 1993	OC	117	-0,35	-0,37	[-.546, -.194]			0	Finance	US	25,0%	28.0
7	Solinger et al, 2013	OC	18	-1,16	-1,34	[-2.023, -.657]			0	Academia	NLD	46,0%	29.0
			1037										
0 - 6 Months													
1	Adkins, 1995	&	104	-0,23	-0,23	[-.410, -.045]	62.00	75.30	1	Healthcare	US		
2	Jonhston et al, 1990	&	102	-0,52	-0,55	[-.748, -.352]	35.10	81.47	0	Consumer products			23.3
3	Maanen, 1975	OC	66	-0,80	-0,87	[-1.145, -.595]			1	Law Enforcement	US		24.0
4	Meyer & Allen 1988	&	83	-0,25	-0,27	[-.476, -.064]	70.70	74.71	0	Diverse	US	64,9%	23.0
5	Meyer et al, 1991	OC	115	-0,06	-0,07	[-.218, .078]	76.56		0	Diverse	US	56,0%	23.0
6	Vandenberg & Self, 1993	OC	117	-1,25	-1,34	[-1.584, -1.096]			0	Finance	US	25,0%	28.0
7	Solinger et al, 2013	OC	18	0,00	0,00	[-.456, .456]			0	Academia	NLD	46,0%	29.0
			605										
6 - 12 Months													

1	Allen & Meyer, 1990	OC	105	-0,20	-0,21	[-.497, .077]	70.60		0	Diverse	US	76,5%	
2	Bosswell, 2009	JS	88	0,06	0,07	[-.117, .257]		81.40	0	Public service	US	65,0%	39.0
3	De Vos & Freese, 2011	OC	280	-0,16	-0,19	[-.305, -.075]			0	Diverse	Belgium	68,0%	27.2

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Source Table of Effects

	Authors	OC/ JS/&	*N*	*d*	*δ*	[*LL, UL*]	JSc	SS	OP	Industry type	Country	Gender	Age
6 - 12 Months (continued)													
4	De Vos et al, 2003	JS	333	-0,03	-0,03	[-.157, .097]	76.00	80.00	0	Diverse	Belgium	65,0%	27.0
5	Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009	JS	137	-0,20	-0,22	[-.373, -.067]	84.20	63.20	0	Diverse	Finland	42,0%	26.0
6	Meyer & Allen 1988	&	73	-0,09	-0,09	[-.321, .141]	70.00	74.71	0	Diverse	US	64,9%	23.0
7	Meyer et al, 1991	OC	104	-0,08	-0,08	[-.209, .049]	76.57		0	Diverse	US	56,0%	23.0
8	Meyer et al, 1998 - Sample 1	OC	146	-0,09	-0,10	[-.218, .018]	73.60		0	Diverse	US	62,6%	
9	Meyer et al, 1998 - Sample 2	OC	165	-0,12	-0,13	[-.237, -.023]	75.80		0	Diverse	US	64,9%	
			1431										
0 - 12 Months													
1	Maia, et al., 2016	OC	240	-0,15	-0,16	[-.285, -.035]			0	Civil Service	Brazil	73,0%	36.7
2	Chao, et al., 1994	OC	82	0,38	0,41	[.197, .623]	80.20	74.80	0	Diverse			
3	Kammeyer-Mueller, et al., 2005	OC	606	-0,38	-0,41	[-.488, -.332]			0	Diverse	US	49,0%	33.0
4	Kennedy & Lawton, 1992 - Sample 1	JS	46	-0,33	-0,40	[-.687, -.113]	72.60	70.80	0	Manufacturing	US	100,0%	
5	Kennedy & Lawton, 1992 - Sample 2	JS	25	-0,19	-0,23	[-.616, ,156]	69.80	66.00	0	Manufacturing	US	0,0%	
6	Lee et al, 1992	OC	762	-0,49	-0,52	[-.602, -.438]			1	Army	US		
7	Meyer & Allen 1988	&	73	-0,31	-0,34	[-.543, -.137]	70.00	74.71	0	Diverse	US	64,9%	23.0
8	Meyer et al, 1991	OC	104	-0,15	-0,16	[-.331, .011]	76.57		0	Diverse	US	56,0%	23.0
9	Wong, 1998 - Sample 1	JS	92	-0,22	-0,24	[-.478, -.002]	41.94		0	Diverse	China		
10	Wong, 1998 - Sample 2	JS	104	0,14	0,15	[-.072, .372]	71.20		0	Diverse	China		
			2134										
12 - 24 Months													
1	Beck & Wilson 2000 - Sample 1	OC	43	-0,70	-0,75	[-1.031, -.469]			0	Law Enforcement	Australia	72,1%	
2	Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009	JS	137	-0,30	-0,33	[-.495, -.165]	84.20	63.20	0	Diverse	Finland	42,0%	26.0
3	Wong, 1998 - Sample 1	JS	92	0,51	0,55	[.348, .752]	41.94		0	Diverse	China		
4	Wong, 1998 - Sample 2	JS	14	-0,14	-0,15	[-.664, .364]	71.20		0	Diverse	China		
			286										

Note: OC = Organizational Commitment, JS = Job Satisfaction, & = Effect sizes for organizational commitment and job satisfaction were collapsed; *N* = Sample size; *d* = standardized mean difference; δ = standardized mean difference corrected for measurement error; *LL* = Lower limit, *UL* = Upper limit of the 95% Confidence Interval; JSc = Job Scope; SS = Social Support; OP = Newcomer orientation programme of introduction training.

Table 2

Effect Sizes per Time Period, Heterogeneity, and Publication Bias

Time period	Overall effect Size					Heterogeneity			Publication Bias		
	k	***N***	$\bar{d}$	$\bar{\delta}$	***LL/UL***	***T***	T^2	I^2	$\bar{\delta}$ **(left)**	$\bar{\delta}$ **(right)**	***ER p***
0 – 3 Months	7	2319	-.11	-.10	-.66/.46	.74	.55	99.13	-	-	.46
3 – 6 Months	7	1037	-.16*	-.17*	-.33/-.01	.19	.03	83.29	-	-	.17
0 – 6 Months	7	605	-.45**	-.48**	-.81/-.15	.43	.18	93.98	-.86 (1)	-.23	.36
6 – 12 Months	9	1431	-.10***	-.11***	-.16/-.06	.04	.00	19.76	-	-	.80
0 – 12 Months	10	2134	-.18*	-.19*	-.36/-.03	.24	.06	91.16	-.12	.09 (2)	.06
12 – 24 Months	4	286	-.15	-.17	-.75/.41	.57	.33	95.72	-	-	.87

Note: time periods are in reference to the newcomers' first day on the job. *k* = the number of effect sizes; *N* = cumulative sample size; $\bar{d}$ = standardized mean difference (subsequent time period minus period time period); $\bar{\delta}$ = standardized mean difference (subsequent time period minus prior time period), corrected for measurement error using α-reliability; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit of 95% Confidence Interval of $\bar{\delta}$; $\bar{\delta}$ (left/right) = re-estimation of effect sizes using the trim-and-fill approach with random effects, with either studies added to the left or to the right; ERp = the *p*-value for Egger's Regression Intercept. *$p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$